1. (Designing a CFG)

Let \( L = \{ x \in \{0,1\}^* : x \neq \text{ww} \text{ for any } w \in \{0,1\}^* \} \). First, any string of odd length is clearly not in \( L \). Consider, on the other hand, a string \( s \) of even length \( 2n \). Let \( s[i] \) denote the \( i \)th symbol of \( s \), so that \( s \in L \) if and only if \( s[i] \neq s[n+i] \) for some \( 1 \leq i \leq n \).

The key observation is that for any such \( i \), \( s \) can be split into two odd-length substrings \( s_1 \) and \( s_2 \) (of lengths \( 2i - 1 \) and \( n - 2i + 1 \), respectively) such that \( s[i] \) and \( s[n+i] \) are their respective middle symbols. Conversely, if we take any two odd-length strings \( s_1 \) and \( s_2 \) and concatenate them to form a string \( s = s_1s_2 \) of length \( 2n \), then the middle indices of \( s_1 \) and \( s_2 \) correspond to \( s[i] \) and \( s[n+i] \), respectively, for some \( 1 \leq i \leq n \) (namely, \( i = (|s_1|+1)/2 \)).

We can then say that a string is in \( L \) if and only if it is the concatenation of (equivalently, it can be split into) two odd-length strings whose middle symbols differ. The following grammar captures this formulation.

\[
\begin{align*}
S &\rightarrow S_{\text{odd}}|S_{01}|S_{10} \\
S_{\text{odd}} &\rightarrow S_{\text{odd}}AA|A \\
S_{01} &\rightarrow M_0M_1 \\
S_{10} &\rightarrow M_1M_0 \\
M_0 &\rightarrow AM_0A|0 \\
M_1 &\rightarrow AM_1A|1 \\
A &\rightarrow 0|1
\end{align*}
\]

Here, \( S_{\text{odd}} \) generates all odd-length strings, \( S_{01} \) generates \( \{s_1s_2 \in \{0,1\}^* : s_1, s_2 \text{ have middle symbols 0, 1, resp.} \} \), \( S_{10} \) generates \( \{s_1s_2 \in \{0,1\}^* : s_1, s_2 \text{ have middle symbols 1, 0, resp.} \} \), and \( M_0 \) and \( M_1 \) generate odd-length strings with middle symbols 0 and 1, respectively.

2. (Decoding a CFG)

2.1. Let \( G \) denote the given grammar. Then \( L(G) = \{ x \in \{0,1\}^* : N_0(x) = 2N_1(x) \} \).

2.2. Proof. For concision, let us say a string \( x \) satisfies \( C \) if \( N_0(x) = 2N_1(x) \). The easy direction to show is \( L(G) \subseteq \{ x \in \{0,1\}^* : w \text{ satisfies } C \} \). Let \( x \in L(G) \). Take any \( x \in L(G) \). We show that \( x \) satisfies \( C \) by inducting on the length of the shortest derivation of \( x \) in \( G \). If this length is 0, then \( x = \varepsilon \) and we are done since \( \varepsilon \) satisfies \( C \). If it is \( 1 \geq 1 \), then consider the first step of a shortest derivation \( S \Rightarrow x \). Suppose it is \( S \Rightarrow 1S00 \). Then by induction, the string generated by the \( S \) on the RHS satisfies \( C \), so \( x \) must also satisfy \( C \). A similar argument applies to all the other rules as well, so our induction is complete.

Now let us prove that \( \{ x \in \{0,1\}^* : x \text{ satisfies } C \} \subseteq L(G) \). We do this using strong induction on the length of the string. For our base case, the shortest string satisfying \( C \) is \( \varepsilon \), which we can generate by \( S \Rightarrow \varepsilon \), so \( \varepsilon \in L(G) \). For our inductive case, take a string \( x \) satisfying \( C \) such that \( |x| \geq 3 \).

Suppose \( x \) is of the form \( 1y00 \) for some \( y \in \{0,1\}^* \). Then \( y \) must certainly satisfy \( C \), so by inductive hypothesis we have a derivation \( S \Rightarrow y \). Adding a step to this gives us the derivation \( S \Rightarrow 1S00 \Rightarrow 1y00 = x \), so \( x \in L(G) \) and we are done. Likewise, if \( x = 00y1 \) for some string \( y \).

Now, let \( w[i \ldots j] \) denote the substring of \( w \) from index \( i \) to index \( j \), inclusive. We can define the function \( f_w : \{0, \ldots , |w|\} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \) by

\[
f_w(i) = N_0(w[1 \ldots i]) - 2N_1(w[1 \ldots i])
\]

\[1\text{Note: You should try a few concrete examples to convince yourself of this fact.}\]
so that \( w \) satisfies \( C \) if and only if \( f_w(0) = f_w(|w|) \). To visualize the graph of \( f_w \), imagine walking along \( w \) from left to right, starting at the origin. Each time you see a 0, move up one level, and each time you see a 1, move down two levels.

Suppose, then, that \( x \) is of neither of the two forms above. Then it can take any of the following forms:

1. \( 1 \ldots 1 \)
2. \( 1 \ldots 10 \)
3. \( 0 \ldots 0 \)
4. \( 01 \ldots 1 \)

Consider case (1). We know that \( f_x(0) = f_x(n) = 0 \), so since \( x[1] = x[n] = 1 \), it follows that \( f_x(1) = -2 \) and \( f_x(n-1) = 2 \). But \( f_x \) can only increase by 1 at a time, so it must hit 0 (i.e., the horizontal axis) at some point, that is, \( f_x(i) = 0 \) for some \( 2 \leq i \leq n - 2 \). But this implies that the substrings \( x[1\ldots i] \) and \( x[i+1\ldots n] \) both satisfy \( C \). By inductive hypothesis, they can then be derived in the grammar \( G \). Combining these derivations with the rule \( S \Rightarrow SS \) gives us a derivation of \( x \).

Cases (2) and (4) also share the property that \( x \) consists entirely of \( a \)'s and \( b \)'s, but no \( c \)'s. If \( x \) contains neither, that is, it consists entirely of \( b \)'s, then pumping down will result in fewer \( b \)'s than \( a \)'s. Hence, \( x \) is not a CFL.

3. (CFL or not?)

3.1. \( L = \{a^n b^m c^m : n \leq m \leq 2n \} \) is not a CFL.

**Proof.** Suppose, to get a contradiction, that \( L \) is context-free. Let \( s = a^p b^p c^p \), where \( p \) is the pumping length of \( L \). Let \( s = uvwxyz \) be the division of \( s \) specified by the Pumping Lemma. Since \( |vxy| \leq p \), \( vxy \) cannot contain both \( a \)'s and \( c \)'s. If \( vxy \) contains neither, that is, it consists entirely of \( b \)'s, then pumping down will result in fewer \( b \)'s than \( a \)'s. If \( vxy \) contains \( a \)'s (and possibly \( b \)'s, but no \( c \)'s), then pumping up will break the condition \( n \leq m \). Finally, if \( vxy \) contains \( c \)'s, then pumping down will break the same condition. Hence, we have a contradiction of the Lemma, so \( L \) cannot be a CFL.

3.2. \( L = \{a^n b^m : n \geq 0, m = n^2 \} \) is not a CFL.

**Proof.** Suppose, to get a contradiction, that \( L \) is context-free. Let \( s = a^p b^{p^2} \), where \( p \) is the pumping length of \( L \). Let \( s = uvwyz \) be the division of \( s \) specified by the Pumping Lemma. If either \( v \) or \( y \) contains both \( a \)'s and \( b \)'s, then pumping up will break the format of \( a^p b^{p^2} \). If both \( v \) and \( y \) consist of only \( a \)'s, then pumping down breaks the condition \( m \geq n^2 \) (the condition \( m = n^2 \) can be split into the two conditions \( m \geq n^2 \) and \( m \leq n^2 \)). Similarly if \( v \) and \( y \) consist of only \( b \)'s. The only possibility left is that \( v \) consists entirely of \( a \)'s and \( y \) consists entirely of \( b \)'s. Then \( N_a(v) \geq 1 \) and \( N_b(y) \leq p \), so pumping up \( p \) times results in \( N_u(wv^{p+1}xy^{p+1}z) \geq 2p \) and \( N_b((uv^{p+1}xy^{p+1}z) \leq 2p^2 < 4p^2 = (2p)^2 \), breaking the condition \( m \geq n^2 \). Hence, we have a contradiction of the Lemma, so \( L \) cannot be a CFL.
3.3. \( L = \{ x_1 \# \ldots \# x_k : k \geq 1, \) each \( x_i \in \{0,1\}^* , \) and for some \( i, j, x_i = x_j^R \} \) is a CFL.

Proof. One approach is to construct a PDA that uses nondeterminism to guess which two pieces to match against each other. A more concise proof, which we will present, is via a CFG. Observe that for any string \( s = x_1 \# \ldots \# x_k \in L, \) if \( i \neq j \) (where \( x_i = x_j^R \)), then \( s \) is of the form \( xwyw^Rz, \) where

- \( x \in \{\{a, b\}^* \#\}^* \)
- \( w \in \{a, b\}^* \)
- \( y \in (\#\{a, b\}^* \#)^* \)
- \( z \in (\#\{a, b\}^*)^* \).

If, on the other hand, \( i = j \) (where \( x_i = x_j^R \)), then \( s \) is of the form \( xvy, \) where \( x \) and \( z \) are as above, and \( v \in \{a, b\}^* \) such that \( v = v^R \). We know how to generate each of these types of substrings, so combining them gives us the following CFG for \( L \).

\[
\begin{align*}
S & \rightarrow S_1 S_2 \\
S_1 & \rightarrow XY'' Z \\
S_2 & \rightarrow XV Z \\
X & \rightarrow XT \# \varepsilon \\
Z & \rightarrow Z \# T \varepsilon \\
Y'' & \rightarrow aY'' a | bY'' b | Y' \# \\
Y' & \rightarrow Y' \# T \varepsilon \\
V & \rightarrow aV a | bV b | a | b \varepsilon \\
T & \rightarrow Ta | Tb \varepsilon \\
U & \rightarrow U a | U b | U \# \varepsilon
\end{align*}
\]

Here, \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \) generate the two categories into which we split \( L \). \( X, Z \) and \( V \) generate the corresponding lowercases described above. \( T \) generates \( \{a, b\}^* \) and \( U \) generates \( \{a, b, \#\}^* \). And lastly, \( Y' \) generates our \( y \) above, less the \( \# \) suffix, and \( Y'' \) generates the substring \( wyw^R \).

3.4. \( L = \{ b_i \# b_{i+1} : i \geq 1 \} \) is not a CFL.

Proof. Suppose, to get a contradiction, that \( L \) is context-free. Let \( s = 1^p 0^p \# 1^p 0^{p-1} \), where \( p \) is the pumping length of \( L \). Let \( s = uvxyz \) be the division of \( s \) specified by the Pumping Lemma. First note that \( vy \) cannot contain \( \# \), otherwise pumping down will result in no \( \# \)'s in the string, not allowing it to be in \( L \). Alternately, if \( v \) and \( y \) (ignoring \( \varepsilon \)'s) are both on the same side of the \( \# \), then pumping down will make the number represented on that side too small to satisfy \( L \). The only possibly remaining is that \( v \) is on the left and \( y \) is on the right of the \( \# \), and more specifically, that \( v \) consists of some positive number of 0's and \( y \) consists of some positive number of 1's. Then pumping down gives us \( 1^p 0^{|v|} \# 1^{|y|} 0^{p-1} 1 \). Given this LHS, the RHS would have to be \( 1^p 0^{|v|} \# 1^{|y|} 0^{p-1} 1 \), but it clearly is not since \( |v|, |y| > 0 \). Hence, we have a contradiction of the Lemma, so \( L \) cannot be a CFL.

3.5. \( L = (a \cup b)^* - \{(a^n b^n)^n : n \geq 1 \} \) is a CFL.

Proof. We observe that any string in \( \{a, b\}^* \) either is the empty string \( \varepsilon \) or can be split into a positive number of non-empty “blocks” of the form \( a^* b^* \), where all but the first and last blocks are in particular of the form \( a^+ b^+ \). Now, a string \( x \neq \varepsilon \) belongs to \( L \) if and only if it satisfies at least one of the following conditions:
(1) some block has different numbers of a’s and b’s,
(2) some block has a different number of a’s from the first block, and
(3) the number of blocks is different from the number of a’s in the first block.

We can then write \( L = L_1 \cup L_2 \cup L_3 \cup \{ \epsilon \} \), where \( L_i \) consists of strings satisfying condition \((i)\). So by the closure of CFLs under union, it remains for us to show that \( L_1, L_2 \) and \( L_3 \cup \{ \epsilon \} \) are CFLs.

Here is a PDA for \( L_1 \):

Here is a PDA for \( L_2 \):

Here is a PDA for \( L_3 \cup \{ \epsilon \} \):
It is left as an exercise for the reader to verify that these PDAs indeed recognize the languages specified.  

\[\Box\]

4. (Complexity of CFGs)

4.1. The complexity of \(G\) is at most \(O(|Q|^4)\).

**Proof.** First observe that every rule in \(G\) has length at most 5 = \(O(1)\), so a bound on the number of rules is also a bound on the complexity of \(G\). We consider each of the three types of rules separately.

Type I, of the form \(A_{pq} \rightarrow aA_{rs}b\), consists of at most a rule for every choice of \(p, q, r, s \in Q\), \(t \in \Gamma\), and \(a, b \in \Sigma_e\), or a total of \(|Q|^4 \cdot |\Gamma| \cdot (|\Sigma| + 1)^2 = O(|Q|^4)\) rules, since \(|\Gamma|, |\Sigma| = O(1)\).

Type II, of the form \(A_{pq} \rightarrow A_{pr}A_{rq}\), consists of a rule for every choice of \(p, q, r \in Q\), or a total of \(|Q|^3\) rules. Type III, of the form \(A_{pq} \rightarrow \varepsilon\), consists of a rule for every \(p \in Q\), or a total of \(|Q|\) rules. Tallying up all three, we get a total complexity of \(O(|Q|^4)\).

Note that this bound is tight, since we can construct a PDA that has \(\text{every}\) allowed transition (possible thanks to non-determinism), which results in Type I containing \(\Omega(|Q|^4)\) rules.

4.2. **Proof.** Let \(M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)\) be our DFA, where \(|Q| = n\). The idea is to have a variable for each state, which will generate all strings that take \(M\) from that state to a final state. Our grammar is then \(G = (Q, \Sigma, R, q_0)\), where \(R\) is defined as follows.

- For each \(q \in Q\), \(a \in \Sigma\), include the rule \(q \rightarrow a\delta(q, a)\).
- For each \(q \in F\), include the rule \(q \rightarrow \varepsilon\).

Each rule in \(G\) is of \(O(1)\) length, and there are a total of \(|Q| \cdot |\Sigma| + |F| = O(n)\) rules, so the complexity of \(G\) is \(O(n)\). It remains to show that \(G\) is indeed equivalent to \(M\), that is, \(L(G) = L(M)\). To do this, we prove the stronger claim that for each \(q \in Q\), \(w \in \Sigma^*\), \(q \Rightarrow w\) if and only if \(\delta(q, w) \in F\), using induction on \(|w|\).

If \(|w| = 0\), then \(w = \varepsilon\), so that \(q \Rightarrow w\) if and only if \(G\) contains the rule \(q \Rightarrow \varepsilon\) if and only if \(q \in F\) if and only if \(\delta(q, \varepsilon) = q \in F\). For our inductive case, suppose \(|w| \geq 1\).

For our \((\Rightarrow)\) direction, let \(q \Rightarrow w\) and \(a \in \Sigma\) be the first symbol of \(w\). Then the first rule in the derivation must be \(q \Rightarrow ap\), for some \(p \in Q\). Now, we know \(p \Rightarrow w[2\ldots|w|]\), so by induction, \(\delta(p, w[2\ldots|w|]) \in F\). But then \(\delta(q, w) = \delta(p, w[2\ldots|q|])\), so \(\delta(q, w) \in F\) as well.

For our \((\Leftarrow)\) direction, suppose \(\delta(q, w) \in F\), and as above let \(a \in \Sigma\) be the first symbol in \(w\). Let \(p = \delta(q, a)\), so that \(\delta(p, w[2\ldots|w|]) \in F\). By induction, we know \(p \Rightarrow w[2\ldots|w|]\). But we also know \(G\) contains the rule \(q \rightarrow ap\), so we can combine these to get the derivation \(q \Rightarrow ap \Rightarrow w\), completing our induction.  

\[\Box\]

5. (Ambiguous grammars)

5.1. Consider the following two distinct derivations for the same string:

\[
<\text{STMT}> \Rightarrow <\text{IF-THEN}>
\Rightarrow \text{if condition then}<\text{STMT}>
\Rightarrow \text{if condition then}<\text{IF-THEN-ELSE}>
\Rightarrow \text{if condition then if condition then}<\text{STMT}>\text{else}<\text{STMT}>
\Rightarrow \text{if condition then if condition then}<\text{ASSIGN}>\text{else}<\text{ASSIGN}>
\Rightarrow \text{if condition then if condition then}a:=1\text{else}a:=1
\]
5.2. Intuitively, this grammar is ambiguous because each “else” could be paired with any occurrence of “if condition then” that precedes it, and the string accordingly generated. Loosely speaking, think of this as parenthesis matching where every ‘)’ has to be matched with a preceding ‘(’, but some ‘(’s stand by itself. There are many ways to make such pairings, leading to ambiguity. To fix this, we need a convention to make the pairing unique and well-defined. We choose the following natural rule: from left to right, we pair each “else” with the closest preceding “if condition then” not already paired. We see then that between a paired “if condition then” and “else” there must be a completely matched sequence of ‘(‘ and ‘)’s, that is, no stand-alone ‘(‘: if there had been an extra ‘(’, it would have been used in a match before the ‘(‘ to its left.

We can now define the following unambiguous grammar. We introduce a new variable, <MATCHED>, corresponding to strings generated by the old <STMT> that are completely matched.

\[
\begin{align*}
<STMT> & \rightarrow <ASSIGN> \mid <IF-THEN> \mid <IF-THEN-ELSE> \\
<IF-THEN> & \rightarrow \text{if condition then } <STMT> \\
<IF-THEN-ELSE> & \rightarrow \text{if condition then } <MATCHED> \text{ else } <STMT> \\
<MATCHED> & \rightarrow <ASSIGN> \mid \text{if condition then } <MATCHED> \text{ else } <MATCHED> \\
<ASSIGN> & \rightarrow a:=1
\end{align*}
\]